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BY- BROOKS, NELSON AND OTHERS
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CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND TO SERVE AS A WORKING GUIDE TO PERSONS WHO HAVE RESPONSIBILITIES IN ADMINISTERING AND COORDINATING PROGRAMS AT THE ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY LEVELS. MAJOR SECTIONS DEAL WITH--(1) BACKGROUND AND ESSENTIALS OF SECOND LANGUAGE STUDY, INCLUDING THE NATURE OF LANGUAGE LEARNING AND THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE OBJECTIVES AND CONTENT FOR THE LEVELS OF THE CURRICULUM, (2) CLASSROOMS, EQUIPMENT, AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS, AND (3) APPORTIONMENT OF RESPONSIBILITIES ON ALL LEVELS TO TEACHERS, LINGUISTS, ADMINISTRATORS, COUNSELORS, AND LIBRARIANS, AMONG OTHERS. A SELECTED BIBLIOGRAPHY ALSO IS GIVEN. (AM)

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Perspective and Prospectus

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MAX RAFFERTY
Superintendent
of
Public Instruction

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Language Instruction
Perspective and Prospectus

PREPARED BY

NELSON BROOKS
Associate Professor of French
Yale University

CHARLES F. HOCKETT
Professor of Linguistics and Anthropology
Cornell University

EVERETT V. O'ROURKE
Consultant, Bureau of Secondary
Education, California State
Department of Education

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
OFFICE OF EDUCATION

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FOREWORD

This report is addressed to all those concerned with the role of foreign languages in our national life and in our educational institutions: school officials, teachers, governing boards of school districts, departments of education, public and private agencies that sponsor educatiqnal and scientific research, government officials, businessmen, industrialists, labor leaders, and the general public.

In recent years there has been much intelligent discussion of foreign language teaching, and many excellent programs of foreign language have been developed. The importance of foreign language learning is generally acknowledged. Yet recommendations and policies have tended to be far too limited, timid, and apologetic. There has been no clearcut comprehensive statement to serve as basic orientation for those engaged in specific language enterprises.

This report is designed to serve as such a platform. We are under no delusion that all the points made will meet with universal approval. We shall nevertheless speak boldly and incisively, on the assumption that neither agreement nor disagreement can be fruitful unless the points at issue are in sharp focus.

Max Rafferty

Superintendent of Public Instruction

PREFACE

Language Instruction: Perspective and Prospectus has been designed and written to give attention to many of the problems and issues relevant to language instruction and curriculum in elementary schools, secondary schools, colleges and universities. The teacher and other educational personnel, the writer and other producers of instructional materials, the materials themselves, the program, the facilities and the environment for learning all have a single purpose. This purpose is the education of the language learner—the child, the adolescent, the adult. It is recommended that those who read and study this bulletin in part or in toto do so with the language learner in mind. It is he who must acquire a second or even a third language in order that he may live a fruitful and happy life among the intermingling people of the future.

The authors of this bulletin are commended for their forthright and articulate presentation. Grateful appreciation is expressed also to the members of the committee who read the original draft of the document and met in deliberative and cognitive session to bring the bulletin to its present status.

The California State Department of Education presents this guiding document to all of those people who in any measure have responsibility for foreign language instruction and curriculum with the full knowledge that those who will succeed must become a part of the process and the program.

RICHARD M. CLOWES
Associate Superintendent of Public Instruction; and Chief Division of Instruction

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Everett V. O'Rourke, Consultant, Bureau of Secondary Education; Chairman, Foreign Language Committee

Carl G. Winter, Consultant, Bureau of Junior College Education

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CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND AIMS

There was a time in our national history when we could afford to think of ourselves as a community apart—a sort of blessed Land of Oz surrounded by an impassable Deadly Desert to protect us from the dangers of the rest of the world. Nothing is more obvious than the falseness of this image for the world of today and tomorrow. United States industry interpenetrates with that of all countries and continents. As taxpayers we support vast programs for the economic and social betterment of peoples in South America, Africa, the Middle East, South and Southeast Asia, and Oceania. Nations surrender bits of their traditional sovereignty, once guarded sc[illegible]lously, to supranational organizations. Jets, in a matter of hours, stitch together the leading cities of the whole world.

Nor can anything—short of nuclear catastrophe—stem this continuing shrinkage of dimensions. We stand at the threshold of the exploration of space. The technological byproducts of this will change our lives in ways of which only a few can be discerned. Telstar will soon bring into our living rooms live TV programs from Europe and Asia. Worldwide direct distance dialing is not many years away. Even today, in Southern California, twelve hours per day of Spanish TV are received daily by ultrahigh frequency direct from Mexico.

The partial view we can get of the not-too-distant future is exciting, yet disquieting. There are many problems. We want ourselves and our children to be equipped to live full, rich, and happy lives. We want no loss of individual initiative and freedom, nor of cultural and ethnic diversity. We want technological, economic, and social developments to serve human ends, for in the last analysis there are no other ends to be served. We want the role of our own nation in the new era to be a proud one, in terms of human values as well as technological ingenuity. And this means that we must be as canny in our human planning as we are in our engineering and our science.

This problem of human planning has many facets, but in the present report we shall be concerned with just one: languages.

No one who devotes a little serious thought to the matter will consider this a minor issue. There are between four and five thousand languages spoken in the world today. A few of them are spoken by

vast numbers of people and carry a rich cultural and scientific literature. Many—including several dozen spoken in the United States and its territories—are confined to groups of a few hundred or a few thousand people and support either a very thin written literature or none at all. Such linguistic diversity is natural under the conditions of primitive communication and transportation that have prevailed in the past, but it will not be viable in the future. Many "small" languages will die out; it is our human duty to see that this comes about in a way that does minimum injury to those who now speak them. But a good many languages will remain, and it is our national duty to see that the people of the United States are prepared to live in a polyglot world.

By tradition, the United States has been an almost completely monolingual country. Immigrant groups reaching our shores have rarely been encouraged to retain their own languages and cultures as they learn our ways and our speech; instead, they have been told to "Talk American!" and have been downgraded until they do. The learning of foreign languages in our schools has been conceived as a special erudite enterprise for students of bookish inclination, rather than as a wholesale operation from practical necessity. Most of our thinking about languages other than English is still done along these lines.

But this will no longer do. The realities of the present and the high probabilities of the near future dictate otherwise. The United States of a few decades hence will be in the same state, vis-à-vis the world as a whole, that many of the countries of Europe have been in for centuries relative to the rest of Europe. The average educated Dane or Dutchman of today speaks his own language at home and in his dealings with his countrymen but also controls English, French, or German, or two or all three of these. This is not because North Europeans have some special genius for learning languages; they are no more or less talented in this respect than anyone else. It is because their national need is obvious. Our own national need will shortly be equally obvious; it behooves us to anticipate it, rather than awaken to it belatedly. It is true that English is being learned on an enormously increasing scale all over the world. But not all people with whom we shall have the need to communicate are going to learn English, and they should not be expected to.

We should become a nation of bilinguals. Every American should control English; ideally, each American should also control some other language. The learning of foreign languages in our schools must

be removed from the status of esoteric frill and installed alongside reading, writing, arithmetic, and civics as part of the core of the curriculum, taken for granted by all as a necessary background for responsible adult citizenship regardless of choice of vocation. Such potentially bilingual minority groups as have survived our melting pot must be nurtured and encouraged. Unless we take such steps, then our technological contributions to world civilization will sooner or later come to nought; we shall in time find our own nation, rather than the rest of the world, quarantined behind a deadly desert of ostracism.

We speak here of attainable goals, not of unattainable ideals. We have asserted that we must become a nation of bilinguals. Once the task is really taken seriously and proper methods and materials are used by properly trained teachers, the schools can impart practical control of a second language far above any level typically attained in the past. At the same time, the difference between one's first language and any language learned subsequently is vast. One's mother tongue, learned from parents and playmates, is a garment worn so closely about one's ego that it is impossible to tell where language habits stop and personality begins. A man's first language is—whether he realizes it consciously or not—his most prized possession as a human being. It is his means of communication with others, but it is also a deeply ingrained part of him, the medium in which he will do his most personal and most creative thinking. It is wrong, whatever be the excuse, to try to deprive anyone of his native language and replace it by another. And in this regard all the languages of the world, with few speakers or many, with a vast literature or none, are on a par. Our everyday thinking about language is generally too superficial to reveal the points just made; but they are profoundly true. If we are really committed to planning in terms of human values we must at all times and in all situations maintain the most sincere respect for the native language of each fellow human being.

Were English the first language of all people of the United States, the implications of the preceding paragraph would be simple. But this is not the case. In the first place, there are isolated regions where the native language, though English, is of an aberrant type. One example is the so-called "island dialect" in Hawaii, which shows traces of an earlier pidginization at the hands of English-speaking overseers working with oriental and Hawaiian laborers. Although native speakers of such aberrant forms of English must adapt to standard formal or literary English also, their own home speech deserves all the deep

respect we have just been talking about. In the second place, there are Navahos in the Southwest, other smaller Indian groups in various parts of the continent, speakers of Spanish in Puerto Rico, New York, the Southwest, and California, speakers of French in northern New England, Samoans in American Samoa, speakers of about a dozen different languages in the Trust Territory of the Pacific Islands, speakers of Chamorro in Guam. For all these and for others who could also be mentioned, English is the obvious choice as a second language. But we must teach them English efficiently and realistically, and avowedly as a supplement to their native language, not as a replacement of it. If this is done, then each individual involved experiences a gain without feeling any loss. Furthermore, the ultimate survival or extinction of each "small" language is then in the hands of its own speakers.

Bilingualism for the United States thus takes the following form: (1) a minority will have some language other than English, of local importance whether or not of world importance, as a first language and English as a second language; (2) the majority, with English as a first language, will have one or another of the other languages of world importance as a second language. Lest there be some misunderstanding regarding these points it should be noted that the languages of world importance include in addition to English at least the following ten: Arabic, Chinese, French, German, Hindi, Italian, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, and Spanish. Political events in the immediate future are not likely to eliminate any of these languages but may add others.

Control of a Second Language

We have already differentiated between a first language and a second language, but to make clear what we mean by control of a second language we need to distinguish control as something apart from other sorts of familiarity with or study of a foreign language. There are many valid aims for studying a foreign language. One is access to the belletristic literature in that language. This is still the predominant motive in most of our college foreign language departments, and there is no conflict of interest between this and the more practical aims we also have in view. Indeed, if the entering college freshman brings with him, as a matter of course, practical competence in a second language, he is in a much better position to benefit from literary study. Another valid aim is access to current scientific and technological writings; this is the basis of graduate school foreign lan-

guage reading requirements. This aim will retain its validity, even if machine translation takes over part of the burden of international scientific and technological communication.

In contradistinction to these and other special aims in foreign language study, what we mean by basic practical control of a second language can be described as follows: a good pronunciation; conversational fluency about everyday matters; a built-in feeling for the vocal and body gestures that typically accompany the second language and for the formulas of politeness and of emotionally colored commentary typical for that language; and comfort and ease in reading newspapers, letters, and other nontechnical written discourse and in commenting without reference to English on what has been read. All these points are subject to variation on the basis of the individual learner's inherent capacity—we cannot usually expect a schoolboy to perform better in a second language than he does in his own. Subject to this constraint, however, the goal is one that we can achieve, if we want to, for any and every language of world importance, within the structure and economy of our nation's elementary and secondary school systems.

PROSPECTUS

Let us now point out the educational state of affairs that technically can be, and humanly will be, achieved in the course of the next few decades. We shall speak here only of those Americans whose first language is English, since the transfer to the other groups is obvious.

The school child will begin learning a second language as soon as he has acquired the basic skills of literacy in his own language. It seems very likely, given the curriculum patterns now emerging, that for most children this will mean beginning to learn the second language at about the age of eight. In small school systems the language chosen will perhaps be the same for all children; in larger systems, the child and his family will have a choice of languages. Once this language experience is begun it will be continued until the individual has completed high school.

If an individual goes on to college, he will expect to use his second language in a variety of ways: in consulting reference material; in attending lectures or participating in whole courses conducted in that language; for recreational reading and viewing of films; in many cases for a planned period of time overseas as part of his college career. Obviously, the study of foreign literature in the colleges and universities will be enormously deepened and strengthened.

With every incoming student already in command of a second language, the foreign language responsibility of the college will be altered in certain ways. Some of these ways are suggested in the preceding paragraph. Obviously, there must be courses open to the freshman that build on the level of competence he has achieved. Advanced language courses must be truly advanced. Present upper division courses may need to be included in those for the lower division. Even so, the colleges will have to maintain elementary language instruction, since many students will need competence in one or more additional languages. For that matter, such additional language needs arise unexpectedly among people in many different walks of life, not only among college students. The colleges will help to meet such needs not only through their own regular courses, but by operating and supervising special programs and institutes.

Of those who go on to college, a good number—though only a small percent—will choose language careers and acquire the special training necessary for them to become language teachers. Some of these specialists will pursue careers as teachers of English (and of other subjects in English) in other countries or to minority groups in our country whose first language is other than English. The outflow of English language teachers to other countries will be matched by an inflow from other countries of teachers of French, Japanese, Arabic, and the like, all proficient in English as well as in their own language, to stimulate and fortify our own foreign language program.

What of the high school graduate who does not attend college but goes to work as a machinist or a bus driver? It would be foolish not to acknowledge that some people trained in a second language may never derive any obvious practical benefit from it. But it would also be foolish to overestimate this disuse of second language skills. For this there are two reasons. The first reason is that we can simply have no advance conception of the extent of the practical face-to-face use of other languages in the new era. Our wildest estimates would probably prove too conservative. The second and deeper reason is that the use of a second language in face-to-face communication is not the only measure of its practical value in a shrinking world. To learn a second language is to achieve some sympathy for and understanding of a way of life other than one's own. Even a little of this can go a long way towards developing greater respect and receptivity for other people's ideas and habits. The deeply embedded language habits of the monolingual can become a Procrustean bed imposing a fixed and arbitrary interpretation of everything he experiences. A second lan-

guage, well learned, helps to make one the master of his communicative habits instead of their slave. Nothing is closer to the prime purpose of American education; nothing is more important for fruitful and happy living in the world of the immediate future.

This, then, is a rough portrayal of language learning in the new era. The rest of this report is devoted to the ways and means by which we can move from what we have today to what we must achieve tomorrow.

CHAPTER II

THE ESSENTIALS OF SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNING

Learning a second language is unlike any other kind of learning. It differs in two ways from learning a first language. The infant knows no language at all; the learner of a second language already controls a first, which is in some respects a help and in others a hindrance. In learning a first language there is no formal "teacher," but only surrounding speakers of the language—parents, brothers and sisters, and playmates. This makes for a randomness of the sequence to which the learner is subjected to different features of the language, and this randomness is in part responsible for the desirably idiosyncratic nature of the learner's eventual control: no two people speak exactly alike, nor should we want them to. But it would be very wasteful for an individual to endeavor to learn a second language in the same random fashion he learned the first language.

All language learning differs from the study of mathematics in that the latter involves logic and reasoning, for which a language is merely a vehicle. Language learning differs from the study of a content subject such as history or chemistry because the latter involves facts as well as logic, whereas a language consists of habits.

The Common Features of Languages

Given the uniqueness of learning a second language, it follows that many of the methods and procedures in teaching a second language cannot be derived by easy analogy from successful theories and techniques in the teaching of other subjects. The task is special; the methods must be special. There must be a firm understanding of what a language is and of what it means to "control" a language, combined with a firm conception of the capacities of human beings as learners of a second language. Nevertheless, the characteristics of learners of various ages and maturities, the factors of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation for learning, and the reinforcement of learning are as applicable in learning a second language as they are in learning other subjects.

Although the languages of the world vary widely in many respects, all share certain basic features of design. The languages (including

English) that are at all likely to be learned as second languages share also at least one feature that is by no means universal: they are all written. Even so, the primary channel for every language is the audiolingual. A written language can be most efficiently learned or understood only in terms of its relationships to the underlying spoken form.

It is customary, and for the languages of concern to us quite correct, to think of four interrelated sets of skills for any language: *listening*, *speaking*, *reading*, and *writing*. The segregation is useful only if we are fully aware of the nature of the interrelationships. Listening and speaking are primary, while reading and writing are derivative. Listening and reading are matters of reception, not called passive reception, for in neither instance is the act really passive, while speaking and writing involve active production. The relation between the two audiolingual skills, listening and speaking, is a great deal more intimate than the roughly parallel relation between the two skills of literacy, reading and writing. The reading ability of the average literate person far outstrips his writing ability: he freely reads newspapers, novels, and textbooks, but may write no more than brief letters and memoranda. Skillful artistic written exposition calls for special training and for laborious trial-and-error; writing in this extended sense lies beyond what we can from a practical point of view be concerned with in learning a second language except at very advanced stages. But hearing and speaking meet in the constant interplay of face-to-face communication in which each participant repeatedly switches between the roles of listener and speaker. A conversation is an episode in which two or three people build a joint and shared informational whole from the bits and pieces of information brought to the transaction by each person. The achievement of casual skill in such conversational participation is a prime aim in learning a second language, since conversational use of language is the fountainhead from which all other uses of a language develop. In working towards this aim, it is quite possible to afford the learner extensive practice in listening comprehension as a partly separable skill. Similarly isolated practice in "pure speaking" is unmotivated, perhaps even unachievable by definition.

THE SOUND SYSTEM

Every language has a sound system, or phonological system, that is uniquely its own. Human lips, teeth, tongue, jaws, larynx, and lungs are capable of an endless variety of sound-producing motions, but each language selects and organizes from this endless variety to

obtain a bounded system within which the whole language operates. This bounded system includes not only vowel and consonant sounds, but also patterns of stress, rhythm, and intonation; the latter as well as the former vary from language to language. As the child learns his first language, his articulatory organs master the delicate motions required by the sound system of that language, and his ears are trained to pay attention to differences of sound that are relevant and to ignore those that are not. In the typical case this mastery is complete by the age of five or six; a few children do not absorb certain features that are of relatively subordinate importance until a year or so later. Since the sound systems of different languages are in general incommensurate, one's native habits of articulation and hearing constitute interference when one attempts to master the sound system of a second language. To the extent that the mastery is incomplete, we say that one is speaking the second language with a "foreign accent." A foreign accent is a matter of degree. If it is too thick, the speech is unintelligible. If it is light enough, the speech can be understood and, indeed, the faint touch of foreignism may in some cases be considered pleasing. Yet even a pleasing foreign accent can be undesirable if it directs the hearer's attention away from what is being said to how it is being said. Clearly, then, in second language teaching we should try to make the learner's adaptation to the sound system of the new language as complete as possible.

There is another reason for this, perhaps even more compelling. There is such a thing as hearing with a foreign accent. The speaker, let us say, is speaking French, which he himself hears in terms of the French sound system; but we are hearing him in terms of the sound system of English. This imposes a serious difficulty in the way of our understanding of what he is saying since the whole design of French as an audiolingual system rests on the distinctions of sound maintained in that language, not on those we maintain in English. Concretely, the final vowels of *au dessous* 'under' and *au dessus* 'above' are functionally different in the French sound system, but both fall within the range of a single functioning sound-type in English. If, in listening to French, we ignore the difference because it is functionless in English, the consequences can be serious.

THE GRAMMATICO-LEXICAL SYSTEM

In addition to its sound system, every language has a complicated set of habits and patterns known technically as its grammatico-lexical system. This consists of an open-ended set of meaningful elements

—words, phrases, significant parts of words—together with patterns by which larger meaningful expressions of various sorts and sizes can be built up out of the elementary ones. The child, of course, does not first master the elements and then learn how to put them together. Rather, he is exposed to and absorbs relatively small complete utterances in context. From these, in due time, he extracts both the recurrent constituent elements and the patterns of combination and uses these elements and patterns to coin new utterances. Elements and their combinations are represented in speech by arrangements of sounds drawn from the sound system of the language and are recognized by the hearer because he is familiar with those habits of representation.

The grammatico-lexical system of a language is just as unique to the language as is its sound system. The grammatico-lexical systems of different languages differ in two crucial ways. First, the meaningful elements of one language only rarely and accidentally cover exactly the same range of meaning as those of any other language. French *chaise* and English *chair* are not exactly equivalent since some of the objects that are called *chair* in English must be called *fauteuil* in French; this kind of discrepancy is typical. Second, the patterns for building larger meaningful expressions not only differ whimsically from one language to another but are in some cases totally incommensurate. English typically puts a descriptive adjective before its noun, and French typically puts it after; some languages do not have any such thing as a descriptive adjective, so that neither statement can be made. Translation of sorts is usually possible for practical purposes, but "word by word" translation is almost always absurd. What one language expresses by a meaningful element, another language expresses by a feature of arrangement or leaves unexpressed.

Because grammatico-lexical elements and patterns of arrangement carry meaning, we must say that the grammatico-lexical system of each language structures the world of its speakers in a unique way. This structuring of the world by a language is part of what anthropologists mean by the culture of a human community. In learning a second language, the aim must be not merely the cryptogram-like deciphering of messages from the second language and enciphering of messages into it, but a genuine empathic participation, on however partial a scale, in the world as structured by the second language for its own native speakers.

Since the grammatico-lexical system of any language is enormously complicated, it might seem that the goal just described is impossible

of achievement. We are saved from that inference by the fact that every grammatico-lexical system is built around a sort of nucleus that may be called the grammatical core of the language. The grammatical core includes all the patterns for building larger expressions out of smaller ones and also a certain subset of the total vocabulary; namely, those special elements like English *an, the, but, with, if, be, he, she, that, when,* the *-s* of *boys* (meaning plural), the *-ed* of *discovered,* that turn up in every discourse no matter what is being talked about and that do a good deal of the job of indicating how other vocabulary elements are being put together. Terms of traditional grammar such as tense, voice, number, and case also have to do with the grammatical cores of those languages that manifest such phenomena, but not all languages have such things (for example, Chinese does not). Excluded from the grammatical core, then, is the endless and varied vocabulary used in talking about this, that, or the other particular topic: *boy, girl, look, hydrogen, titrate, fight, telephone, pharmacy, phoneme,* or *tonsillitis.*

The child masters the grammatical core of his native language at the same age he has mastered its sound system, except for such archaic core words as *thou, thee* (if the language has any such), and except for patterns of combination that appear only in relatively long and complicated formal exposition. Of course, he has also mastered a good deal of vocabulary outside the core. But the acquisition of noncore vocabulary continues throughout life, long after the core is complete. In just the same way, in learning a second language it is the grammatical core to which attention must be given first, with only enough noncore vocabulary to make this possible. Teaching too much noncore vocabulary of a second language early is a waste because the learner does not know what to do with it. Once the core is mastered, however, the acquisition of additional second language vocabulary is easy, profitable, and potentially endless.

PARALANGUAGE AND KINESICS

In addition to its sound system and its grammatico-lexical system, every language in actual use is accompanied by certain types of behavior which, while not technically part of language, are communicatively important, vary from one language to another, and should be acquired along with the language. One of these accompaniments can be suggested by the term vocal gesture (the technical term is paralanguage). The other is hinted at by gesture, though body-motion (or kinesics) is more inclusive. As we speak, we sometimes increase

the volume of our voice and sometimes decrease it, and the significance of such changes is not the same in different languages. Also, we underscore or emphasize key words with slight motions of head, eye, or hand; or we acknowledge what someone else is saying by certain such motions without any vocal sound at all. French has a device for emphasizing a particular word (the so-called *accent d'insistence*) quite different from anything of common occurrence in English. One can learn linguistically correct Russian, and still sound un-Russian if one uses typical English "hesitation forms"—the *uh's* and *well's* we produce while deciding what to say next—instead of the Russian ones. The Latin-American hand gesture for "come here" resembles ours for "stay away," and the Hindi head motion for "yes" is easily mistaken for our own meaning "no." A giggle among us means amusement; in many parts of the world it signals embarrassment and apology.

The codification of these paralinguistic and kinesic differences is in its infancy. For the language class, we can at present count on little more than the genuineness of the teacher's behavior in the new language and the unconscious imitative ability of the student. Appropriate films can help, provided the teacher exploits and interprets them wisely. But true precision in the formulation of pedagogical aims and procedures in these matters is something for the future.

WRITING SYSTEMS

Finally, every language of world importance has an associated writing system. Of the ten listed earlier in this report, five (French, German, Italian, Portuguese, and Spanish) are written with alphabets virtually identical to that of English; three (Arabic, Hindi, and Russian) are written with other alphabets; and two (Chinese and Japanese) are not written with alphabets, but by a different means. An alphabetic writing system represents speech by virtue of associative ties between graphic shapes (letters and combinations of letters) and elements of the sound system. For some languages the representation is quite simple and regular; for others, outstandingly English and French, it is quite complex and full of irregularities. In Chinese, and largely in Japanese, it is not sounds that are represented by graphic shapes, but whole meaningful elements, regardless of their pronunciation. Such a character writing system requires a much larger stock of elementary graphic shapes and is clearly much more difficult to learn. In all cases, the child does not undertake any systematic acquisition of literacy until he has mastered the sound system and the grammatical core of his language as an audiolingual system.

VARIATION WITHIN A LANGUAGE

Our outline of the basic design features of languages has been possibly misleading on one score. A language is not a monolithic structure: there are variations in speech pattern from individual to individual and from community to community. Indeed, "Arabic" and "Chinese" are not really names for single languages at all, but for small families of related languages with an internal diversity as great as that within the Romance family, including French, Spanish, Italian, and Portuguese. This poses the practical problem for each world language as to just what particular variety should be taught to Americans as a second language. For the familiar languages of Western Europe this problem has already been largely solved. For others the solution is not always easy or obvious, but it can be reached through a realistic consideration of the political and social situation in the parts of the world concerned in each case. The solution need not itself be completely rigid. The basic requirement is that the variety chosen be one used by educated and respected native speakers; for some languages this still leaves considerable leeway.

In considering any outline of the basic design features of languages or any description of the design of a specific language, it must always be remembered that the learner's aim is not to learn about the language. The learner need not understand such technical or semitechnical terms as "sound system," "grammatical core," and the like. These terms are useful only in describing the complex set of habits, the acquisition of which constitutes the learning process. Time spent in talking about how a language works is time lost from learning the language. The analytical apparatus and technical terminology are for the teacher, the tester, and the preparer of materials and curricula.

THE CHARACTERISTICS AND CAPACITIES OF LEARNERS

All that is required to guarantee that an infant shall undergo the humanizing process of learning a first language is that he be free of serious congenital defect that adversely affects his ability to use languages and that he grow up surrounded by other human beings. The drive to acquire the "blood and bone" of one's first language is apparently inborn and almost impossible to frustrate. There is no seeming correlation with general intelligence nor with any measurable special ability.

No such generalization is valid for the acquisition of literacy in the first language, nor for aptitude for the learning of a second language.

For each of these, divers factors play a part, so that it is difficult to make an accurate prognosis on the basis of test results. Consequently, the best currently available way to sort out the good learners from the poor learners and the nonlearners is to expose all to the first stages of the learning process. Dropouts and failures are then self-selecting, not determined on the basis of some possibly erroneous or inadequate pedagogical theory. It is reasonable, however, to register what little is known in a general way about certain correlations.

AGE FOR OPTIMUM LANGUAGE LEARNING

From the learner's point of view, there is no obvious optimum age for undertaking the acquisition of a second language—except that, by definition, we cannot speak of a second language until the learner already controls his first language. When a child has been exposed to two languages in his home environment and learned both, the two languages learned may be considered to be first languages. In a general way, it is perhaps true that children have greater plasticity than adults, and for some aspects of learning a second language this is an advantage. For example, it is known from observation that the average prepuberty child who is placed in an environment where a new language is spoken will in due time master its sound system so well as to be almost indistinguishable from a native speaker, whereas the typical adolescent or adult will never master it completely. Also, the average child will perhaps accept arbitrary patterns with less resistance than most adults.

On the other hand, the mature learner can more readily grasp the reasons for various types of practice, and only the mature learner is equipped to deal with some of the written materials that form a proper part of the language learning enterprise at an advanced stage.

The beginning of a second language in school should surely be delayed until the child has mastered the sound system and the grammatical core of his own language. Most children have accomplished this before they are school age; a few have not. It is perhaps valid to propose that the child should not begin learning a second language until he has acquired the rudiments of literacy in his own language, so as to avoid any possible interference with the latter task. However, by using appropriate teaching procedures it might be possible to avoid such interference.

It is clear that a second language program truly aimed at bilingualism should be started as low in the grades as it can be done successfully, so that each individual may achieve the desired bilingualism

as early in his life as possible. We propose roughly the age of eight—the beginning of the child's third year in school, not counting kindergarten, as a sensible time to start, for by the time the child has reached this age the school has had ample time to help him learn the basic skills needed in using his native language. At this stage of development the child is still young enough to have the plasticity needed to give him an advantage in learning a second language. And by beginning to learn a second language at the age of eight the child has sufficient time to learn the language well enough by the time he has completed the sixth grade to have the foundation needed to pursue a planned sequence of language learning through the rest of elementary school and high school. In other words, the child has the maturity he needs when it is required for success in learning the more advanced aspects of his work with the second language. The child who has not mastered the essentials of his native language by the time he is eight probably requires special consideration.

More experimentation and observation are needed before we can really be certain that the age of eight is definitely to be preferred to an earlier starting age—on this score, the recommendation that learning a second language should begin when a child is eight must not be interpreted mechanically. Later starting ages, on the other hand, though they deserve diligent and careful attention, should be employed only when it is necessary to maintain stopgap programs until the necessary steps can be taken to begin the programs with eight-year-olds.

SEX AS A FACTOR IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

There is some evidence that at any age girls are better language learners than boys. If so, this condition may be the result of habitually different treatment of girls and of boys in our society, at home and in the schools; or the evidence may hold only in the context in which language learning is regarded as "bookish" or perhaps somehow "effeminate."

EFFECT OF HOME LANGUAGE BACKGROUND ON LANGUAGE LEARNING

Some children come from homes in which a language other than English is spoken some of the time, perhaps especially by older family members. Children with this sort of background are often semibilingual: that is, they speak and understand English and they understand the other language but are unable to speak it.

If the second language at school is different from the additional language at home, it is doubtful that the learner needs any attention different from that given the ordinary student with a monolingual English background. But if the two are the same, there may be trouble, since the variety of the language spoken at home may be different from the one chosen for school instruction. When the two are different, the teacher must exercise extreme caution in handling the situation. If the teacher indicates in any way that the learner's home variety of the second language is inferior, serious harm can result. If it is merely registered as different, the differences themselves can be a matter of interest, and the child can be aided to make maximum use of his earlier informal learning.

PHYSIOLOGY AND PSYCHOLOGY AS FACTORS IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Various minor pathologies can militate against second language learning without having been revealed in other contexts. For instance, a slight hearing loss may not have affected the child's learning of his native language—in view of the enormous amount of exposure he has had to it—and may not impair his acceptance of instruction in other subjects, and yet may render it difficult for him to perceive and distinguish the speech sounds of the second language. When a child appears to be having unusual trouble in this regard provision should be made to have his hearing tested. Peculiar conformations of mouth, nose, or throat similarly might leave no mark on the child's native language and yet cause him problems in learning and using a second language. It seems highly unlikely that defects of vision should first come to notice in connection with learning to read the second language; the eye's part in this task is exactly the same as for literacy in the native language. More serious physiological aberrations, of course, call for special attention but have nothing especially to do with second language learning.

There are many differences in the style and the efficacy of individuals' control of their native languages. Some children are taciturn; others have logorrhea. Some actively control a large vocabulary, others only a necessary minimum. Some adapt rapidly to a new vocabulary; others scarcely at all. Some are fascinated by words; others bored by them. Some speak smoothly; others hem and haw and make repeated false starts. Some articulate clearly; others mumble, stutter, or stammer. Some are attentive when spoken to; others pay little heed. These differences and variations stem from a welter

of physiological, psychological, and cultural factors that are exceedingly complex. Obviously, no individual can be expected to perform more effectively in a second language than he does in his first. Yet cases to the contrary are known—the individual who stutters in speaking his native language does not always stutter in using another language. The literary artist, Joseph Conrad, whose native tongue was Polish, wrote in English. Our expectations, therefore, should not be fed back to the learner in such ways as to forestall unusual achievement of which he might be capable.

MOTIVATION IN LANGUAGE LEARNING

Among adults, at least, the best learning is that undertaken, everything else being equal, when the strongest motivation prevails. For second language learning we may describe two rather sharply distinct varieties of motivation, though the two may occur together in a single learner. In one, the learner thinks mainly of the advantages to be gained as a result of having achieved control of the target language; these advantages may be in the area of academic success, social relations, business, or travel. In the other, the learner finds the learning process attractive for its own sake and for the concomitant pleasure of associating with those who speak the target language and of participating, to some small extent, in their culture.

Motivation among children is rather a different matter. Very few, if any, children of eight or ten pursue goals that lie a decade or so ahead. The motivations are the rewards of the present and of the immediate future. That is why parents and teachers, school counselors, and curriculum planners, define the more distant goals and o nize the learning that must be done into a series of small pieces, each of which can be undertaken by the child in terms of his short-term perspective.

Yet motivation among children to learn a second language is probably stronger, deeper, and more general than would at first appear to be the case. By the mere fact of being human, the child has a drive towards communication with his fellows and an interest in acquiring additional language skills. Thus he brings to the language learning situation a readiness and a capacity that command respect and deserve the most skillful manipulation. The pedagogical problem is not just that of instilling motivation, but also that of carefully utilizing the drive that is present. The teacher's attitude is extremely important. If he feels that teaching a second language in the elementary school is an added burden in the school day and shows little or no

interest in doing the job well, his pupils will tend to feel the same way. On the other hand, if he believes that this part of the program is important and endeavors to make it worthwhile and attractive, his pupils will quickly reflect his enthusiasm.

In the effort to maintain and promote motivation, some teachers resort to activities such as singing and playing games. These activities have their place in a foreign language program as motivators and relaxers and have a limited though real function as direct cultural experiences. However, the amount of time spent in playing games and singing must be limited to the extent that they remain useful adjuncts to the principal language learning activities and do not usurp the position of the latter. The necessary activities of language learning can themselves be infused with the spirit of a game. The child likes this, and his natural motivation is then preserved and strengthened by satisfaction in steady growth and development of which he himself is fully aware.

One other aspect of motivation that needs to be mentioned is the motivation of parents. The child whose parents are supportive of what he is asked to do in school generally performs better than the one whose parents are disinterested or disapproving. And no school system can continue to carry on any program that does not meet with general community approval. Doubtless for a long time there will be a few families, or even whole communities, who regard learning a second language an unnecessary luxury. There is nothing unique about this attitude, for the right to disagree is among the democratic prerogatives that are frequently employed in our society. The only weapons we have with which to combat views we regard as shortsighted are the only weapons we should want—those of peaceful persuasion, experimentation, and demonstration of results.

THREE SPECIAL FACTORS

Most learners of a second language have, or in time develop, certain special urges that can either help or hinder the learning process depending upon how they are handled.

The first of these may be called the premature urge toward literacy. The individual who is beginning to learn a second language is typically literate in his native language but is not likely to understand clearly the nature of the complex relationship between writing and speech. If the initial stage of his instruction in the second language is purely oral, he may ask how a new word or the words in a phrase are spelled.

The danger of this can be pointed out in terms of French and English. These two languages share an alphabet, but they diverge widely in the sound systems that underlie the use of the single alphabet. Thus, the French sound represented by the letter *r* is not only totally unlike the English sound represented by the letter *r*, but is unlike any English sound at all. If the speaker of English, as he begins French, is allowed to use the shared alphabet as a bridge between the two languages, he will carry across that bridge a variety of English speech sounds that do not, in fact, belong in French. For example, he will use his English *r* sound in place of the totally different French sound represented by *r*. This should be avoided. The learner should speak French with French speech sounds, just as he speaks his native language with the speech sounds appropriate to it. Mastery of the new sound system in the context of actual audiolingual use must come first; then the learner can acquire the writing system of the new language in a carefully prepared progressive sequence, in terms of the appropriate sound system.

For most individuals who are beginning to learn a second language a simple explanation is enough to take care of the premature drive towards literacy. They will play by the rules of the game set forth by the teacher, provided they are convinced that the rules are realistic.

The second special urge is the one to translate. Especially during adolescence the learner begins to feel a strong need to restate in his mother tongue the "message" or "content" of the second language he is learning. This is probably due to the desire for greater clarity in meaning, fostered by the false assumption that the restatement leads to clear understanding. The belief appears to grow stronger with age. Also, restatement in the mother tongue requires less energy than appropriate response in the second language. Translation of sorts is possible, but it is a special task that is exceedingly difficult and requires special training. In particular, simple "word-by-word" translation, of the sort usually first indulged in, leaves out all the subtleties of connotation that are part of what we want the learner of a second language to master. It replaces those subtleties by the connotative subleties of the native language in which the learner feels at home. This is why the learner is under the delusion that the translation is more precise in meaning. Furthermore, the pause to translate effectively blocks all normal interchange in face-to-face communication.

The urge to translate can be depreciated when it first manifests itself by using examples to point out how much is apt to be lost in the process.

The third special urge is the urge towards intellectual analysis. Interest in the mechanisms of language is well-nigh universal and is especially keen in the adolescent. The learner wants to know "*Why* do they say it this way?" His question can reflect anything from a doubt as to the "logic" of the second language, merely because it works differently from the native language with which one is fully at home, to a genuine curiosity about the patterns of the second language. Curiosity should not be discouraged, but experience has shown that time spent analyzing a language, talking about it, finding out what makes it tick, is for the most part time lost from learning to *use* the language. It is almost as though the habits that constitute control of a language were stored in one part of the brain, while facts about the language were stored in another.

Perhaps this fact is not so surprising after all. Choose any language, say Rumanian: it is spoken fluently by people of keen intellectual interests and abilities and, at the opposite end of the scale, by people of no intellectual pretensions. Those who do have intellectual interests do not necessarily direct them at their language. Practical control of a language does not qualify anyone, not even a native speaker, to make meaningful statements about the language, any more than being able to walk renders one an expert in the anatomy, physiology, and kinesiology of the legs and their movements.

The language learner's intellectual curiosity about how the language works must therefore be exploited rather indirectly. Special time must be set aside for talking about the language, and this activity must not be allowed to encroach on practice in using the language. What is said about the language need not be extensive, but it must be accurate, not merely drawn indiscriminately from the scholastic tradition of partial misconceptions about it. The distinction between learning a language and learning about a language must be made clear to the learner. He must understand that what he learns about the language may be worthwhile in its own right but that such learning must not be permitted to detract from his learning of the language.

Streams and Levels

We have envisaged a situation in which there will be an early starting point for all children to begin learning a second language,

and in which most of them will continue their supervised study of the second language without hiatus through high school and perhaps beyond. Thorough planning and extended experimentation on many fronts are necessary if we are to move from the current situation towards the one envisaged.

Probably the most important single factor to be provided for in any school language program is continuity. When a child begins a second language, he must have the guarantee, provided he stays in the same school system, that he will be able to continue his work with the language as long as he is in school. No elementary school foreign language program should be instituted without provision for this continuity. To expose children to a second language for several years in elementary school is almost worthless from the point of view of control of a language if the language exposure is not continued in high school. To get a good beginning in elementary school and then be forced to start all over again in high school is wasteful of the students' time and signals lack of respect for the elementary school program. "Exploratory" and general language courses that are presented before second language study is begun in earnest are to be deplored.

Since competent teachers for second language programs are still in very short supply, we can hardly expect many full-length programs of the proper sort, running from an early grade through grade twelve, to be functioning in the near future. Therefore, we must plan in part in terms of temporary expedients that though they fall short of the ideal are nevertheless improvements on the traditional situation. We shall speak here of different streams and of certain roughly comparable levels of achievement. The quantity of work ascribed to a single level is defined in terms of the amount of learning that can be reasonably expected in a high school class that meets regularly five full periods a week for one school year and operates efficiently. A chart of a basic stream,[1] one that starts early in grade school, and of two alternatives appears on the next page.

In any single school system, the materials and procedures for levels III through VI can be identical for all these streams, and students from all streams can even be commingled in a single class, since at the high school level there seems to be no serious difficulty in having students from different grades work together if their preparation is comparable. Levels I and II are another matter. Although the language to be learned is the same regardless of stream, the interests and

[1] Adapted from Nelson Brooks, *Language and Language Learning: Theory and Practice*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1960, p. 118.

capacities of eight-year-olds and of twelve-year-olds are different, and materials and procedures must be adjusted accordingly. The attention span of the eight-year-old is comparatively short. A single period of 20 minutes of concentrated purposeful practice once a day, five days a week, throughout grades three to six is ample. About 40 minutes at a time, once a day, five days a week, throughout grades seven and eight, is enough for children in the basic stream to master Level II and for children in alternative stream B to master Level I.

	BASIC STREAM		ALTERNATIVE STREAM			
	Stream A		*Stream B*		*Stream C*	
Grades	3					
	4	I *				
	5					
	6					
	7	II	7	I		
	8		8			
	9	III	9	II	9	I
	10	IV	10	III	10	II
	11	V	11	IV	11	III
	12	VI	12	V	12	IV

* Roman numerals indicate levels.

These recommendations on time and timing are approximate, not restrictive. Local conditions vary. Excellence of performance—mastery of the language—is what counts; uniformity in curriculum, scheduling, and articulation is at most a convenience. Also, students vary. Progression from one level to the next, regardless of stream, must be based on demonstrated achievement of the minimum competence required for the next level. Since individual learning rates differ widely, every effort should be made to provide the maximum opportunity for all students to master the content and skills of each level. To accomplish this, serious consideration should be given to the advantages of homogeneous grouping of students, with provision for periodic regrouping, within each level.

DESCRIPTION OF COMPETENCE BY LEVELS

The boundaries between successive levels must be recognized as somewhat arbitrary, since the learning of a language is in a sense continuous and unending. However, it is possible to specify approximately what should be achieved by the end of each level. This

achievement can be neither described nor tested in terms of the amount of time the learner has spent in class or the number of pages he has "covered" in a textbook. Such information is useful, but must be supplemented by answers to questions such as the ones that follow:

How well can the student perform in the four basic skills?

In what situations is he at home?

How well does he control the sounds of the target language?

What patterns can he use with accuracy and fluency when he speaks or writes?

How extensive is his passive vocabulary as he listens and reads, his active vocabulary as he speaks and writes?

What literary texts has he read and studied?

What cultural information has he assimilated?

How well can he retell what he has heard and read?

How well can he initiate talk and writing on his own?

What the student should be able to do by the end of each of the first four levels is shown in the following outline. For the sake of explicitness, such matters as tense, gender, and number are mentioned. This renders the outline directly applicable only to the more familiar languages of Western Europe. Specialists in less familiar languages such as Chinese or Japanese bear the responsibility for appropriate adaptation. Such adaptation is also necessary for languages that have more complex or alien writing systems.

LEVEL I

Demonstrate, in hearing and in speaking, control of the whole sound system.

Repeat the account of a brief incident as he hears it read, phrase by phrase.

Retell aloud such an incident after repeating it in this way.

Participate, with a fluent speaker, in a dialogue about any one of perhaps 20 situations.

Read aloud a familiar text.

Write a familiar text from dictation.

Rewrite a simple narrative containing familiar material, making simple changes in tense.

Do orally and in writing exercises that involve a limited manipulation of number, gender, word order, tense, replacement, negation, interrogation, command, comparison, and possession.

LEVEL II

Demonstrate continued accurate control of the sound system.

Recognize all of the basic syntactic patterns of speech and use most of them.

Comprehend, by listening and also by reading, subject matter that is comparable in content and difficulty to what he has learned.

Be able to write all that he can say.

Have firsthand knowledge of brief samples of cultural and of contemporary literary prose and be able to converse in simple terms about them.

LEVEL III

Demonstrate continued accurate control of the sound system.

Demonstrate accurate control, in hearing and in speaking, of all the basic syntactic patterns of speech.

Read aloud a text comparable in content and style to one he has studied.

Demonstrate the ability to understand what is heard in listening to a variety of texts prepared for comprehension by ear.

Write from dictation a text he has previously examined for the details of its written forms.

Demonstrate adequate comprehension and control of all but low-frequency patterns of syntax and unusual vocabulary encountered in printed texts.

Have firsthand knowledge of 100 to 200 pages of readings of a cultural and literary nature; be able to discuss their contents orally and to write acceptable sentences and paragraphs about their contents.

LEVEL IV

Read aloud an unfamiliar printed text.

Write from dictation, (a) following a preliminary reading, and (b) without a preliminary reading, passages of literary prose.

Converse with a fluent speaker on a topic such as a play seen, a novel read, a trip taken, or a residence lived in.

Read a text; then in writing (a) summarize its contents and (b) comment on the ideas expressed.

In a page or two of text, carefully selected for the purpose, discover and comment upon a stated number of points that are culturally significant. These may be in linguistic structure, in idiom, or in vocabularly reference, e.g., if English were the language being learned, a text about the United States in which the term "night school" appears.

Receive oral instructions about an assignment to be written: its nature, its contents, to whom addressed, its form, its length, and its style of presentation and then write the assignment.

The content of levels V and VI is subject to much wider variation than that of levels I and II so that the needs of specific students can be met. For many students a minimal course, designed to maintain and strengthen what has been learned, that meets perhaps twice a week and for which no outside preparation is necessary can be recommended. This will enable the students to keep alive the skills they have perfected and make their resumption of full-time effort in learning a language much easier as they subsequently adjust to their college programs. For others, a bilingual course in a content subject such as biology, chemistry, mathematics, or automotive engineering is highly useful. For most, a course involving the usual schedule and curriculum content is best. An advanced placement program should be provided for students whose work is exceptionally satisfactory and who can afford to spend the required time in such a program.

The question of the place of literature in a language program is basically a question of where the learning is taking place. Language can be learned in a wide variety of circumstances. It can be learned at home, on the playground, in business, in travel, in the armed services, and in the diplomatic corps. The program under discussion does not come under any of these categories. Rather, it is one conducted under the auspices of the academic world, and the values of this world must be respected. In this world, literature has a constant and important place. The time and attention given to literature in the first two levels must, in the nature of things, be very limited, though the appropriateness of folk literature, proverbs, and brief lyrics for memorization is not to be overlooked. Many teachers will feel that Level II should not be completed without presenting at least a brief sample of authentic literature, studied in order to gain acquaintance with a segment of the target language as used by a writer. This is certainly

in order, provided that the samples are accessible to the student without the painful decipherment of too much new vocabulary. Levels III and IV will give an important place to literary texts. These will be studied principally for the language they contain, yet the continued learning of structure and vocabulary will take on an added dimension of meaning by being related to characters and situations in the story being told. At this time there is likewise room in the reading schedule for material that is well written and is culturally significant but that makes no pretense of being belletristic. This kind of reading material should be selected from books, periodicals, and newspapers and adapted to the needs of the learner.

It is wise to recognize that many students will not wish to go very deeply into literature. For those who do not, there is plenty of alternative content for Levels V and VI. For those who do, these levels should be so oriented; those who began in the third grade should thus be able to cover by the end of high school a substantial quantity of literature with the degree of comprehension permitted by their ages and maturity levels.

ARTICULATION

School authorities shudder at any proposal, no matter how worthy, for the inclusion of new subjects in the curriculum, since the problem of making room for them and of correlating them appropriately with other school activities is serious. The typical elementary school program is very full. If something new is to be added, ramifying adjustments that are not simple to make are unavoidable. Our stand is that learning a second language is becoming of such vital importance that necessary adjustments must be made. At whatever point a language program is begun, it must be accorded a place along with other core subjects. To do otherwise is to imply that language is not a central part of the program but an extra somehow less crucial part than other phases of the program. This implication can hardly fail to have an adverse effect upon the learner's attitude and his ultimate success.

The problem of finding the necessary time is much less pressing in the senior high school and four-year high school, since foreign languages have traditionally formed a part of the curricula at this level. Instead, there is the problem of developing language courses and teachers for a continuous program that builds on what the high school students of the future will already have acquired in elementary and junior high schools. Other subjects, particularly mathematics and the sciences, are quite legitimately making increasing demands on the

time and energy of high school students, and it is unlikely that this trend will vanish. It is therefore essential that at this educational level, as at earlier levels, foreign language learning be rendered as efficient as possible. Indeed, the very act of moving the beginning stages of second language learning down into junior high school or elementary school frees high school students for more attention to these crucial content subjects as they pursue with greater proficiency the advanced levels of language instruction.

It is in high school that opportunity to learn a third language, without abandoning the second language, should be offered to those who wish it and who have demonstrated their ability by success in their second language. Such courses should be offered in grades nine, ten, eleven, and twelve, in classes that meet daily, to students who have completed Level II of their second language. This provides for an amount of learning that is significant and rewarding in itself and is also of sufficient depth and scope to serve as a foundation for advanced work in college. For his third language, the student should be able to select a contemporary or a classical language.

We wish to be particularly explicit about classical languages. They should be available to all students who want them. Their study is important, but the motivation should be realistic. Latin, for example, should be recommended for its literary texts and for familiarity with a language and culture that have been of fundamental importance in the development of the civilization of Europe and the Western Hemisphere, not as an aid to the learning of English vocabulary or grammar, for English has its own grammar and this grammar is not very much like that of Latin.

CHAPTER III

CLASSROOMS, EQUIPMENT, AND INSTRUCTIONAL MATERIALS

Most of the learning of a second language that takes place in school occurs in the classroom, for this is where all the factors involved are brought together. The most important of these factors are the students and the teacher. The values of the other factors—courses of study, textbooks, recordings, tapes, films, programmed materials, and tests—are determined by the uses that the teacher makes and encourages the students to make of them.

Classrooms

In addition to the space requirements, the major considerations for classrooms, regardless of the subjects taught in them, are proper lighting, good acoustics, adequate heating and ventilation, and appropriat equipment and movable furniture in sufficient quantity for all purposes. All are important, but acoustics are especially important for language classes. In all instances the rooms should therefore be relatively free from noises arising in other areas—adjoining classrooms, hallways, playgrounds, and streets. They should also be free of noises such as humming caused by the heating system, gurgling caused by water in the plumbing system, and whooshing caused by the air conditioning system. All of these merit particular attention, for in learning a new language students are required to use their ears in a very special way. The space requirements will be determined by the number of students in the classes and the equipment and materials required to carry on the instructional and learning procedures.

The optimum size for elementary language classes (Level I and Level II) is not known. The one point of agreement in the existing opinions is that the absolute ceiling in class size of elementary language classes is close to 25 pupils.

The proponents of classes of from 20 to 25 pupils maintain that there are methods available for supplying each member of a class in this range with all the individual attention he needs. This group holds the opinion that the teacher who is effective with a class of from 20 to 25 is not necessarily twice as effective with one half the size.

Those who maintain that the ideal class size in the neighborhood of from 10 to 12 students claim that a class in this range is large enough for active conversational give-and-take and large enough to supply for the individual student morale of a sort that is often lacking in a class of four or five. On the other hand they claim that it is small enough to permit each student to be given a good measure of individual attention by the teachers. The proponents of this view are of the opinion that larger classes necessarily entail loss of individual attention that in turn results in the rate of the learning process being lessened.

When and if a consensus regarding class size emerges, every endeavor should be made to hold to the standard established. Classes that are larger or smaller should then be accepted only as expedients forced by circumstances.

The Teacher

In elementary second language study the teacher must have (1) thorough practical control of the language he is teaching; and (2) know how to teach the language.

Essential elements in learning to teach any language well includes the following three steps. *Step one*. One must learn the language under a teacher who teaches it well. Literate native speakers of the language may bypass this step. However, this is hardly a true bypass, for they will have control of the language; but their control of the language does not obviate the need for *step two* and *step three,* which must be completed by all language teachers. *Step two*. One must observe the subject being taught expertly. *Step three*. One must teach the subject for a while under expert supervision.

Part of knowing how to teach a language well is having a thorough understanding of the design of the language and its differences from the native language of the learners—the sound system of the target language, its grammatical core, its writing system, and the complex relations between this system and the audiolingual base. and its psychological and cultural ties. This is what the literate native speaker generally lacks, and unless he has had special training he may control all these matters but be unable to describe them. The successful learner of a second language is in the same position as the literate native speaker until he has had the special training required.

The language teacher does not need this understanding to teach his students in detail about the language they are learning, for learning such information is not an essential part of the students' task.

The teacher must, however, be able to spot the sources of the difficulties students encounter and be able to turn to the proper sort of classroom drill to contend with each difficulty. He must be able to measure the progress of his students. He must understand why certain skills are to be developed first, others later. He must be able to supply succinct, specifically relevant, and accurate answers to the puzzled questions about points of usage that his students will ask from time to time. He must be able to explain to students why certain kinds of classroom activities are exceedingly important and why others are of such nature that their use is not essential. He must be able to correct the misconceptions about the nature of language that his students hold.

The teacher must be able to judge when, in the ongoing activity of the class, students need to be given opportunity to acquire information about the foreign language they are learning and when they must be kept at habit-building drill. Matters of this sort can be provided for in textbooks, teacher training courses, and training manuals only in a very general way. It is, therefore, necessary for the teacher to have an understanding of the foreign language he is teaching and sufficient training and experience in teaching the language to make the decisions required.

The importance of this understanding of the target language by the teacher is exceedingly important but it is not all the teacher needs. There are fine scholars who write and read learned articles about this or that language and have excellent practical control of the language, but who would be quite lost in the language classroom. Such scholars can help the language teacher, but the teacher, in addition to having an understanding of the language, must know what to do in each situation that arises in teaching the language. This is why steps two and three of the sequence of teacher training are so crucial.

It is customary in this country to distinguish between programs for the training of elementary school teachers and those for the training of high school teachers. However, there are probably no basic differences between the professional preparation needed by the teacher of beginning language who works with elementary school pupils and that needed by the teacher of beginning language who works with junior high school students, senior high school students, or adults. Anyone properly equipped to teach at one of these educational levels should be able to adapt with little effort to the others, except that some teachers, for personality reasons, may work more

comfortably at one level than at another. Teacher training programs for teaching a second language should pay no attention to the educational level of the trainees' ultimate students until very late in the training programs, and then there is no reason why all trainees should not be exposed to whatever is known about such adaptations as are advisable for learners of different ages.

Teaching a foreign language is indeed an intellectual task and a challenge of the first order. When learning a second language becomes a part of each individual's educational program, the recruitment of teachers will become a relatively simple matter since the total operation can propagate itself—some of each generation of public school students will be the "seed crop" for the teachers needed. Their special training will be relatively easy, for when it is begun these individuals will already have some proficiency in the second languages they plan to teach. We may even envisage ultimately a situation in which many elementary school teachers will be prepared to meet the second language needs of their pupils without the help of roving specialists. However desirable, this situation will not come soon; at present it would be the height of folly to require the average elementary school teacher in addition to his other responsibilities to take on the burden of teaching a second language for which he is almost totally unprepared. Meanwhile, we are faced with what can only be described as a bootstraps operation. The standards of training and of certification for language teachers must be raised (the scope of the Modern Language Association Foreign Language Proficiency Tests [1] provides an excellent frame of reference); the rewards for success must be increased; training programs must be multiplied and intensified; and the best people already in the profession must be afforded the opportunity for whatever further training they need and must be enabled to transmit their skills and experience to others. Summer institutes for language teachers are a step in the right direction, but the present scale of this sort of enterprise must be increased just as rapidly as the available quantity of key personnel allows.

TEXTBOOKS

What is a "textbook"? Why should a language class use one? Let us pretend that textbooks have never been invented and consider, instead, what kinds of printed materials can actually be of value to the students or the teacher. Unconventional approaches to problems

[1] *Modern Language Association Foreign Language Proficiency Tests for Teachers and Advanced Students.* Educational Testing Service, Princeton, New Jersey.

are fruitful from time to time even if they usually lead to conventional solutions.

Through that part of Level I prior to their exposure to the writing system of the new language, pupils do not need any printed materials. In fact, during this stage, it is imperative that they do not use any printed materials. Their classroom work is purely audiolingual; books and manuals are for the teacher's use. Exactly the same principle may apply for the senior high school beginner or for the adult learner.

The student does not need printed materials until he is ready to begin learning to read and to write the second language he is learning. Depending on the language, this may be within a few weeks or a few months of his start; at earliest, it will be halfway through Level I.

The words and phrases he knows must recur in many different written contexts in order that his control of them may become automatic and effortless. At first no new vocabulary or structure items appear in his reading materials, but only the written representations of the vocabulary in context he has already learned audiolingually. After reading has become easy within the bounds of the vocabulary already controlled audiolingually, a stage reached at different points for different languages, depending on the unfamiliarity and complexity of the writing system, then reading may be the medium for the introduction of new vocabulary, and this vocabulary will subsequently be worked into audiolingual practice. Towards the end of Level II purposeful reading begins and from this point on becomes increasingly great. For these later stages, excerpts for reading should be found in books and magazines not written for the classroom and these should be adapted to the learner's capacities and needs. The criteria for the selection of this material should be: Is the language authentic? Is it suitable as a model of contemporary usage for the learner? Does the material have cultural significance? Does the material have literary merit? Not everything chosen needs to meet both of the last two criteria. The learner of French may profit from reading labels and inscriptions on products that are printed in French but in a different way than from reading Proust and Molière.

Language teachers disagree regarding the extent to which the individual learning a language needs printed materials that describe the language he is learning. Relevant notes in reading materials are helpful to such individuals, but the well prepared language teacher can usually supply the grammatical notes needed. On the other hand,

not all teachers are able to do so. Therefore, explanations should be accurately set forth in printed materials. Some experts believe that at the end of Level II the learner should have access to a systematic description of what he has learned and is about to learn. The basic point to be borne in mind, however, is that time spent in finding out how a language *works* is largely time wasted from developing the habits of *making it work*.

The foreign language teacher has many needs. He needs a checklist of the points to be taught and drilled on for any one level in any one stream. He needs clear indication of the proper linear sequence for these items, though this need not be absolutely fixed even during Level I, that is, assuming that items E and F must both precede item G, it may still be feasible to take up E before F or F before E, depending on details of the class situation that only the teacher can judge. He needs copious drill materials of all sorts to draw on, both skeletal indications of a drill format and also lengthy and complete individual drills.

The printed materials can be in the form of a series of "textbooks" or some novel plan. A plan worth considering is that of a set of many small booklets, carefully cross-indexed, so that when the student uses the printed material he can handle it without difficulty. Two points regarding the printed materials are of special importance. The first is that the teacher must use printed materials wisely. A textbook is all too often permitted to govern the course. In these situations the teacher thinks of pages such-and-such through so-and-so of the textbook as what must be covered in an allotted time. This is certainly no measure of the progress that should be made in a language class. The second point is that materials for learning a second language must be subject to constant revision, not merely to wholesale replacement every few years as the school's old copies wear out. Such revision is crucial because certain aspects of any living language change rather rapidly, and progress is constantly being made in language teaching techniques.

Evaluation and Testing

Teachers, administrators, guidance officers, admissions officers, and test makers must be wary of measurement instruments that do not measure what the student has learned. The student's objective is to learn to do with the new language what is done with it by those who speak it natively. Only tests that ask him to perform as the native

speaker would perform can measure the degree of his success with accuracy and fairness. Above all, tests in the matching of lexical items in two languages, tests that involve translation, and tests of grammar analysis can no longer give valid proof of what the learner can do in the target language in terms of itself and of its normal use in communication. For accurate measurement, tests must be given in all the skills the learner is acquiring—listening comprehension, speaking, reading, writing—and the tests must be designed so that the student works with the target language exclusively. English may be used only for directions. Multiple choice questions are fully satisfactory up to a point, but the student must also speak and, in due time, write, and his performance in both instances must be evaluated by a knowledgeable scorer.

Tests are given for a number of different purposes. One is to answer the teacher's questions: How well has what I have tried to teach been learned? How can I teach in terms of what the students need to know? Another reason for giving tests is to get answers for students' questions: What progress have I made? How well am I able to show what I have learned?

In Levels I and II, the tests used for the measurement of progress should be developed at the time the content for the two levels is developed. They should then be subject to such revisions as the teacher thinks necessary to measure what he has presented. Similar tests should be prepared for Level III; however, they should be supplemented with standardized tests.

Audio-Visual and Electromechanical Aids

Chalkboards, flashcards, filmstrips, long-playing records, tape recorders, films, programmed learning materials, and television may be used to good advantage in teaching a foreign language. However, it should be noted that such equipment is used only as teaching aids. They should then be used in conjunction with resource materials in such a manner that the work done by students at home, in the laboratory, and in class is coordinated.

The language laboratory merits serious consideration in the economy of language learning for the following reasons:

1. Affords students a chance to hear a variety of authentic voices of both sexes, various ages, and differing dialects
2. Provides repeated opportunity for the learner to hear, repeat, and respond to the utterances already heard and partially learned in class

3. Permits presentation of a wide variety of drills for the practicing of structure and vocabulary learned in class
4. Makes it possible for each student as necessary to record and play back his own voice for comparison with that of the models
5. Permits the learner to respond simultaneously without interference (this is impossible in the classroom because the first student response tells the others how to respond)
6. Provides for tests in listening and in speaking

A tape recorder has many uses in teaching a foreign language, but it also has some limitations. It cannot tell the student whether his pronunciation is correct. It cannot carry on a conversation with the student in which there is some choice between responses at each point and in which the purely linguistic part is supplemented by vocal gesture and culturally appropriate body motion. The first of these limitations looms large during Level I, since the student at that stage is in no position to judge the accuracy of his own pronunciation and requires the constant response of the live teacher reinforcing or correcting if he is to move closer and closer to the goal of good native-sounding speech. It is interesting to note that by the time the learner becomes capable of detecting his own faults of pronunciation in the new language, his control of its sound system is so good that he needs no further special drill on it, only continued practice. The second limitation applies throughout all levels.

The desirable results that may be expected of a language laboratory do not automatically follow once the equipment is installed. Much time and energy must be spent to procure or prepare appropriate recordings, to schedule the students' attendance, to supervise the students' activities in the laboratory, to integrate effectively what is practiced in the laboratory with what is learned in the class, and to provide for necessary maintenance and repair of the laboratory equipment. The younger the learner, the more important is the constant personal guidance of the teacher, and the less useful is the laboratory. Therefore, the proposal to use laboratory equipment in the elementary school should be subjected to the most skeptical type of scrutiny.

Motion pictures, projected in the school or over television, are invaluable teaching and learning aids. The most natural procedure in using them is to expose students to pictures of reasonable merit and intrinsic interest, designed in the first place for ordinary artistic and entertainment purposes, not for pedagogical use. The students

must be sufficiently advanced in the second language that they can follow the story without undue strain. They may be allowed or required to view a picture two or more times and between viewing given opportunity to examine crucial portions of the dialogue.

The use of motion pictures is appropriate only for the most advanced levels. At earlier levels, especially prepared motion pictures may be shown, and the students' exposure to the pictures timed so that the bulk of the linguistic material is familiar to the students. The aim is to provide students with listening experience that will deepen their feeling for the true-life contexts in which speech naturally takes place.

This aim can also be featured by using filmstrips with accompanying tapes. These have a useful feature that compensates to some degree for the absence of motion. The sound can be turned off and the picture being viewed used as a point of departure for classroom discussion.

Since motion pictures and television permit only one-way communication, it is apparent that they can never be used to provide a direct interchange of ideas such as is provided in a face-to-face transaction among living speakers. In using film and television, language teachers should recognize the built-in limitations of these media and exploit them only as means of helping students learn the meaning and cultural context of the language.

CHAPTER IV

THE APPORTIONMENT OF RESPONSIBILITIES

The success of the foreign language program depends in part upon the proper apportionment of responsibilities, in part upon the proficiency exhibited in meeting the responsibilities by those to whom they are assigned. The total job is one that requires individuals to put forth full effort, groups to work cooperatively, and both individuals and groups to coordinate their efforts.

The Language Teacher

The language teacher is obliged to submit himself to a searching self-examination. He may make this examination by asking himself questions such as the following: Do I really control my particular foreign language well enough to be teaching it? Do I have the proper understanding of its workings? Do I have the proper understanding of language teaching techniques? If not, do I want to take the trouble to acquire the understanding and skill I need? Do I have the capacity to acquire them, if given the opportunity? His answers to these questions will determine how well he is prepared to meet his responsibilities as a teacher and indicate wherein he has weaknesses that should be corrected. If he needs and wants further training, he should proceed to meet his needs. If he is thoroughly competent, his abilities are needed not only in the language classroom but also in the training of more teachers: he should make himself available.

The Literature Teacher

Audiolingual programs of foreign language instruction that begin in the elementary school have begun to produce a generation of students who when they enter high school and college will want to enroll in literature courses conducted entirely in the foreign language they have studied. Teachers will be needed for these courses who are specialists in the particular fields of literature and who have command of the language in which the literature was written. And in addition, the teacher will need to be informed regarding the cultures in which the literature evolved.

The Linguist

Linguistics is the study of language for any and every practical purpose. Language teaching is one of a number of fields of applied linguistics. The linguist who is interested in these applications must above all remember that his skills and experience are not the only ones required; however, at present, he possesses virtually sole control of some of the specialized knowledge required for these applications. It is therefore his duty to make the knowledge available. In doing so he is obliged to listen carefully to the experienced language teacher, to the specialist in elementary education, to the educational psychologist, and to all the others whose cumulative experience is of relevance and to give due consideration to what they say.

If we set aside the experience that some linguists have accumulated because they are also language teachers, we find that the crucial contribution of the linguist *qua* linguist is quite constrained. He can and should work diligently to replace widespread misconceptions and old wives' tales about the nature of language by an equally widespread recognition of the facts regarding the nature of language; supply thoroughgoing and accurate descriptions of the design of languages and of their writing systems and careful contrastive analyses of selected pairs of languages, usually English and another language; keep the materials he supplies up to date as usage changes. The linguist *qua* linguist is not really competent to do more than to take these steps. The selection of facts from the linguist's description of a language and the ordering of the facts into appropriate pedagogical sequence is the domain of the teacher and the educational expert.

The Educational Psychologist and Specialist in Educational Theory

There are certain general principles of education that apply in teaching any subject; however, others apply only in teaching a limited number of subjects. In Section II the uniqueness of learning a foreign language was discussed. The specialist in educational theory and methods should therefore proceed carefully—he should not try to apply to this unique kind of learning principles that are only valid elsewhere; he should acquaint himself with this special kind of learning before he endeavors to utilize on an empirical basis the principles that do hold. The educational methods specialist makes certain that the courses in educational methods and philosophy offered by higher

institutions of learning are oriented so that they will be most beneficial to the prospective teacher in the new language program.

School Administrators

A foreign language program should not be instituted at any school level unless the students who enter it can be guaranteed continuity throughout the rest of their public school careers, provided they remain in the same school district. And if possible all the school districts in an area should plan cooperatively to offer similar programs so that pupils may transfer from district to district without being faced with any difficulty. This implies careful planning for a good many years ahead if a program is to begin somewhere in the elementary school. The program offered should be available to all students, not any one group. However, offering a program open to students who elect it is a valid step towards an ultimate program for all.

The responsibilities of foreign language teachers are of such nature that their selection should be based on certification plus demonstration of competence in all aspects of language instruction. Both certification requirements and teacher preparation programs for teachers of foreign languages are being continually improved and will in time give a high degree of assurance that the teacher who has met the requirements is well prepared and capable of doing the required job. Certain residents of an area may be qualified to teach a foreign language, but will not hold the required teaching credentials. If these individuals are merely native speakers of other languages, they do not necessarily qualify as language teachers; however, they may do so by securing the education required for certification. The need for teachers of foreign languages is sufficiently great that both encouragement and help should be accorded those who have the ability and wish to become teachers.

Another way of using the services of locally available native speakers is worthy of consideration under emergency conditions. Given good teaching materials, a two-person team technique can be used—a teacher who knows how to run a language class but does not know the particular language very well and a native speaker who commands the language but does not control pedagogy. The skilled teacher on this team controls classroom procedures; the native speaker supplies the vocal model for the learners to follow and responds appropriately to the learners' efforts. This is not desirable as a permanent plan, for ideally the teacher should have both the language competencies and teaching skills required.

The College, the University, and Their Governing Bodies

The student entering a college or university should have opportunity to continue contact with the second language he has acquired. In part, this contact can be maintained by the institutions in the various fields making use of supplementary materials that are written in languages other than English. It should be noted that the use of such material increases the value of instructors with multilingual competence.

Good elementary foreign language instruction at the college level must be maintained and developed even when every entering student controls a second language, for the students may want to learn a third or even a fourth language.

Curricula for language teachers must provide for a high standard of control of each foreign language—thorough familiarity with the culture and literature of the country or countries in which each is spoken, thorough grounding in linguistics, and the acquisition of knowledge of language teaching methods and the skills used in teaching languages, these two to be acquired in part through apprenticeship. The amount of time the would-be teacher should be required to spend in studying educational methods, psychology, and philosophy should be sufficient for him to become proficient in conducting classes properly and in providing the instruction that is needed. Programs whereby potential teachers can be sent abroad for a year as exchange students should be employed when possible to give the ones who are planning to teach foreign language experience in the country where the language is spoken.

In some instances, potential language teachers should be encouraged to prepare themselves to teach one of the languages that has not been offered in the public school curriculum but that is becoming of world importance—Hindi, Japanese, and the like. This may be done even though there now exists an inadequate supply of good teachers of French, German, and Spanish. However, only the most unusual candidate should be encouraged to prepare to teach more than one foreign language. Such a candidate might be one who has been bilingual from childhood in English and another language and has acquired a third language by studying it throughout his public school career and is especially bright and adept at language learning.

A year or so of experience in teaching English or a foreign language in the public schools or in teaching English to nonnative

speakers might well be considered as providing a desirable background of practical teaching experience for any otherwise qualified candidate for advanced graduate training in language teaching and linguistics.

Offices of Education—State and County

The offices of education at both the state and county levels (in California the State Department of Education and the offices of county superintendents of schools) can promote and implement the program described in this document in many ways: by sponsoring local and regional conferences, by helping to organize summer programs, by advising the colleges of existing needs, encouraging projects such as foreign language teaching via television accompanied by appropriate teacher training programs, and by promoting the development of teaching materials that are especially designed for use in the program. They can also encourage research and experimentation in teaching foreign languages and support programs for the preservice and in-service education of school teachers that should result in the school program being carried on with increasing efficiency.

By surveying the ethnic and linguistic composition of their respective school districts, school administrators can secure the information they need as a basis for decisions regarding the establishment of programs in which instruction is first conducted in a language other than English and English then is taught as the second language. Another possibility to be considered in areas where there is a substantial school population able to speak a foreign language and where competent bilingual teachers are available is the provision of instruction on a bilingual basis. This should be done only in schools where the pupil population is divided between native speakers of English and native speakers of a given foreign language.

Consultants, Coordinators, and Language Supervisors

The educators most closely associated with the development and improvement of language programs are supervisors, coordinators, and consultants. Due to the diversity in density in school population and other factors, certain school districts and offices of county superintendents of schools may employ special language consultants, others general curriculum specialists, and some may employ both.

Supervisors, coordinators, and consultants can do a great deal to improve on present foreign language offerings through in-service

programs. Systemwide meetings of teachers for short periods during the regular school year or for longer periods during the summer can also be devoted to securing such improvements. New developments in language teaching techniques can be presented in these meetings and the use of audio-visual aids discussed and demonstrated. Audio-visual consultants should be used for the second of these purposes. Committees including librarians may be used to evaluate books and other materials that are available. Classroom teachers may also be given valuable assistance by supervisors while the supervisors are working in their classrooms.

School Counselors and Student Personnel Officers

School counselors should acquaint themselves with the new techniques being used in language classes and they should occasionally visit the language classes in order that they may know how to make their services most helpful to students. The counselor will be most helpful if he emphasizes the following points:

1. Progress in school and college is coming more and more to depend on whether one has adequate control of languages other than English. Entrance to college, various college courses, and many careers in certain fields may have foreign language as a prerequisite. Graduate schools frequently require students to have knowledge of one or more foreign languages before they can secure advanced degrees. There is no better time than the elementary and high school years to acquire the language competence that will be needed later.
2. There are real differences in the nature and extent of difficulties of various languages for the English-speaking learner; but these are taken into account in the construction of foreign language curricula so that the rate of work required of the learner is essentially the same for all. The student's choice of a foreign language should therefore never be based on the notion that one will be easier for him than others.
3. Advise the student to postpone the beginning of a third contemporary language or of a classical language until he has good command of the second language, that is, until he has completed Level II. Also advise him that in taking up a new language he should not abandon his second language nor begin studying two foreign languages at the same time.

4. Advise the student to stay with the first foreign language he begins until he has completed the fourth level or has finished high school. This is the only way for him to get full return for his investment of time and energy.
5. Encourage the student to be fully prepared before he takes college entrance examinations. Extra effort expended on preparing especially for examinations is better spent on the subject matter itself. No student can be ready for such an examination, even with the entrance standards currently in force by most colleges, until he is at least well along in the third level of study.

School Librarian

If the librarian is provided with course programs, reading lists, and bibliographies, there are many ways in which he can aid and strengthen the work done in foreign language courses. A shelf, a section, or a bay may be designated especially for books, newspapers, and periodicals in the foreign language or languages being taught. To find oneself confronted with and surrounded by books and other materials printed exclusively in the foreign language is a cultural experience that can be provided in a library, which is the counterpart of the cultural island established by the language teacher in the classroom.

Books to be used for collateral reading can be put on reserve in the library. The library can have available the full texts of stories, novels, plays, and poems of which only selections or extracts may be assigned for study in the classroom. The library must also have an increasing quantity of foreign language material of every sort that may be used for recreational reading and cultural learning.

The librarian can procure and make available information about dealers in foreign books and about study and travel abroad. Books presenting information on foreign cultures that are written in English that are to be read outside class can be made available at a special place in the library, and instruction how unusual references may be found may be given students by the librarian.

School librarians are currently being asked to provide for the storage and circulation of certain materials other than books—tapes, records, filmstrips, and films. From the point of view of the foreign language teacher and the learner, it is highly convenient to have all such materials, along with printed materials, in one place. But if tapes and films are available for circulation, there is the question of

where they are to be used. The problem posed merits the attention of the librarian, the foreign language teacher, laboratory technician, visual aids expert, and instructional materials specialist. A sound solution should be formulated, one that provides for all pupils the opportunities they need to do the necessary viewing and listening.

Publishers and Manufacturers

Those who are engaged in language teaching are constantly in need of printed materials and equipment. It is the task of the teaching profession to devise new and improved materials that reflect its insights and decisions concerning objectives and the methods for reaching those objectives. Once such materials are purchased for use in the language field, they must then be subject to constant revision and improvement. It is the task of the publisher and the manufacturer to produce and distribute these materials and to suggest how this can be done economically and satisfactorily.

Parents and Patrons

Before any major revisions are made in the foreign language program, the reasons for them should be fully and clearly explained to all interested adults in the area served by the schools that offer the program. This may be done by parent-teacher association meetings, meetings of service groups, and by using the news outlets that are available. Programs that in general have the approval of the community are most apt to succeed.

In some communities, the public at large may believe that it sees the importance of more and better foreign language study more clearly than the teachers and school officials. In such cases it is perfectly proper for the public to take the lead in promoting new developments, but in most instances the promotion will be most successful if it is done in cooperation with the school officials. Hesitation by school officials to introduce a foreign language program in the elementary schools may be due to the fact that they are endeavoring to find ways in which a satisfactory program might be developed that would begin in the grades and continue through high school. And they may be wondering, if a new and improved program were introduced, how the present teachers could be prepared to give the required instruction, or perhaps how funds might be secured to employ the number of foreign language teachers that would be needed if such a program were introduced.

State Legislatures

State legislatures, apart from appropriating funds for educational purposes, enact two kinds of legislation that affect the schools: fiat legislation, that requires certain subjects be taught or not taught; and enabling legislation, that establishes machinery, finances, and facilities by which certain goals can be sought.

The people of a democracy have the right, working through their representatives, to establish for the schools any standards they believe to be necessary. However, such legislation may cause serious difficulty, for when additions are made to the curriculum it is generally necessary to eliminate others or to devote less time to them. Sometimes such legislation also creates problems for school districts, since it does not specify how the money needed to employ additional teachers can be secured nor how the materials required to implement the provisions outlined by it can be obtained.

Enabling legislation that (1) encourages worthwhile language programs; (2) rewards schools that develop and maintain good language programs; and (3) helps stimulate the recruiting and training of good foreign language teachers is eminently to be desired.

Research and Training Support Foundations

The National Science Foundation, the National Institute of Health, the United States Office of Education and several other arms of the federal government, and a number of private foundations support research and training programs that bear on language. The governmental agencies operate within certain legal restrictions. For example, the National Science Foundation cannot support a program with a practical aim that might be interpreted as political, but must confine itself to the subvention of basic research.

The greatest need that can be met in part through the help of agencies and private foundations is for more specialists in language teaching and linguistics. This would involve providing adequate funds for graduate and apprenticeship study. In particular, promising graduate programs in the teaching of foreign languages can be fostered and new ones generated, if funds can be made available to support the continuing education of highly qualified teachers who now must stop for financial reasons. The highest level of professional preparation for foreign language supervisory positions now demands that the candidate turn in two directions: towards the humanities for a thorough grounding in language, philosophy, and literature; and

towards the social sciences for linguistics, psychology, and anthropology. Funds are needed to make such a course of study available to all the people who need and could profit from them.

Learned and Professional Societies

Organizations such as the Modern Language Association of America, the Linguistic Society of America, the National Council of Teachers of English, the American Association of Teachers of each of several languages, the American Council of Learned Societies, and various other regional and national associations can help immeasurably to promote good foreign language programs by (1) keeping their memberships informed of all developments in method, in new curricula, in new training opportunities; (2) constantly raising professional standards; (3) cooperating with school and governmental agencies in research and in the preparation of new materials; and (4) working for more suitable incentives for special professional competence.

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